

CLOSING THE DIVIDE: THEORY AND PRACTICE IN MENTORING

Dr Lisa Catherine Ehrich
Senior Lecturer
School of Professional Studies
Faculty of Education
Queensland University of Technology
Victoria Park Road
KELVIN GROVE QLD 4059
AUSTRALIA
PH: 07 3864 3038
FAX: 07 3864 3981
Email: l.ehrich@qut.edu.au

Professor Brian Hansford
Head, School of Professional Studies (Retired)
Faculty of Education
Queensland University of Technology
Victoria Park Road
KELVIN GROVE QLD 4059
AUSTRALIA
Email: bc.hansford@qut.edu.au

Ms Lee Tennent
Senior Research Assistant
Faculty of Education
Queensland University of Technology
Victoria Park Road
KELVIN GROVE QLD 4059
AUSTRALIA
Phone: 07 3864 3096
Email: l.tennent@qut.edu.au

Paper for ANZAM 2001 Conference, 'Closing the Divide', Auckland, New Zealand, 5-7 December 2001.

CLOSING THE DIVIDE: THEORY AND PRACTICE IN MENTORING

ABSTRACT

In recent decades mentoring has been identified as an effective workplace learning activity for men, women and minority groups in a variety of public and private sector settings. Although it has received a great deal of coverage, researchers have yet to reach any consensus over a functional or scientific definition. A number of authors have commented that the definitional problem of mentoring can be attributed, at least in part, to the fact that missing from so much of the mentoring literature is a lack of grounding in appropriate theory. The purpose of this study, then, is to examine a substantial database of mentoring literature drawing from education and business related studies in an attempt to. 1. Examine the extent to which theoretical frameworks are evident in over 300 pieces of empirical research in mentoring; 2. Identify the range of theoretical perspectives which have been put forward to explain the mentoring phenomenon; and 3. Devise a model of mentoring which draws upon both theoretical literature and findings from empirical literature in an attempt to 'close the divide' between theory and practice in mentoring.

CLOSING THE DIVIDE: THEORY AND PRACTICE IN MENTORING

INTRODUCTION

The generic meaning of a mentor is a 'father' figure who guides and instructs a younger person. The meaning comes from Homer's epic, *The Odyssey*, written around 700 BC. In his story, Mentor was the friend and servant of Odysseus who became responsible for teaching, guiding and instructing Odysseus' son. Since 700 BC, and particularly during the last thirty years or so of the last century, much has been written about mentoring and its potential for enhancing workplace learning and developing an organisation's human resources. It is most unlikely that Homer, creator of the Mentor Myth, would have anticipated the tremendous coverage afforded to the Mentor concept in both the academic and popular literature. Nor would he have expected to see the institutionalisation of mentoring arrangements (ie via formal mentoring programs) in a variety of workplace settings such as government departments, universities, hospitals, schools, and corporations of all sizes.

This paper represents our ongoing quest to synthesise current understandings of the mentoring phenomenon. Our previous work has examined the positive and negative outcomes of mentoring for mentees, mentors and organisations (Ehrich, Tennent & Hansford, 2000; Hansford, Tennent & Ehrich, 2000, 2001a, 2001b). In this paper one of our intentions is to explore the theoretical underpinnings of over 300 pieces of empirical data in the area of mentoring in business and education contexts in order to determine the extent to which these studies acknowledge theoretical insights. Literature abounds with exaltations for researchers, program developers and curriculum designers to base their work on a sound theoretical or conceptual framework. We would argue, too, that if mentoring research is to be taken seriously by researchers and practitioners alike, it is incumbent upon researchers to articulate the theoretical underpinnings of their empirical research. We feel that this will help eliminate the definitional confusion that surrounds mentoring and strengthen its place in the academic researcher community.

In a recent meta-analysis of research based literature of mentoring in business contexts (Hansford et al., 2001b, Hansford, Ehrich & Tennent, in press) and mentoring in educational contexts (Ehrich et al., 2000; Hansford et al., 2000, 2001a), we were interested in the manner in which theoretical or conceptual underpinnings were treated. As part of an in-depth exploration of 151 educational mentoring studies and 159 business mentoring studies, one of the coding tasks we undertook was to establish the frequency with which theoretical perspectives were identified in the database as well as the range of theories identified. We knew that authors such as Healy and Welchart (1990), Jacobi (1991) and Gibb (1999) had indicated that studies which focus on mentoring frequently do not locate mentoring within a wider theoretical framework. While Healy and Welchart (1990) suggested that the inherent definitional problems in mentoring are due in part to the failure of researchers to ground their work in appropriate theory, Jacobi's (1991) comprehensive review of mentoring indicated that one of the noticeable weaknesses in mentoring research was "the lack of theoretical and conceptual base" (p.522). Gibb (1999) went further and stated that "a substantial theoretical analysis of mentoring has been absent, implicit, limited or undeveloped" (p.1). Thus, one of our key interests in this study was to determine the extent to which theory was missing from the studies we reviewed.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

The three research questions guiding our current study were identified as following:

1. To what extent does the theoretical literature underpin research studies in the area of education and business?
2. What are the theoretical underpinnings upon which mentoring studies are based?
3. What might a model of mentoring look like that draws upon both theoretical insights and a synthesis of research based findings in the area of mentoring?

Before addressing each of the three questions stated above, the paper begins by providing some background discussion on our larger study from which the two comprehensive mentoring databases in the area of education and business were developed.

THE LARGER STUDY

As researchers interested in the field of mentoring, we began our preliminary investigations by examining the outcomes of mentoring for mentors, mentees and the organisation. It became apparent that there was considerable variability in the findings from studies that hindered the making of valid inferences about mentoring arrangements and programs. Thus we decided to develop a comprehensive database from which those in education settings and business settings could make more reliable inferences regarding the nature and outcomes of mentoring. To achieve this, we used meta-analytic like techniques, suggested by researchers such as Glass (1977), to assist us in analysing 159 education and 151 business published studies.

For inclusion in the database, studies had to meet two criteria. Firstly they had to report original research findings, i.e. findings specifically generated by the particular study. Secondly they had to focus on either the use of mentoring in an educational setting (such as schools and universities) or business context (such as government or non-government organisation). Databases used for the literature searches included ERIC, AUSTROM (AEI), PsycLIT, Sociological Abstracts, ProQuest, EBSCO, Business Periodicals Index, Business Australia on Disk, Science Direct and Emerald.

The education search resulted in a database of 159 studies conducted between 1986 and 1999, while the business search resulted in a database of 151 studies conducted between 1986 and 2000. Both searches met the two criteria for inclusion. Each study was analysed according to a series of codes developed specifically for the analyses. The development of the coding sheet stemmed from a preliminary reading of 14 articles in the area of educational mentoring.

Two types of data were identified and coded – factual and descriptive data. Factual data comprised year of publication, source (e.g. Journal, research report), country of study, type of mentoring studied (e.g. beginning teaching, banking), sample size, and data collection techniques employed. Included also were the theoretical underpinnings of mentoring used in each of the studies. Descriptive data comprised the reporting of positive and negative outcomes associated with mentoring programs. This paper focuses on the types of theories underpinning mentoring across the two databases.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES IDENTIFIED

In order for a study to be deemed as advancing a theoretical perspective or framework, it had to identify and discuss a ‘theory’, ‘framework’, or ‘model’ in relation to mentoring. In the business database of 151 mentoring articles, 53 articles (or 35%) espoused at least one theoretical perspective. Of the 159 educational mentoring articles, 22 studies (or 15%) identified and discussed at least one conceptual or theoretical perspective. These figures, particularly the latter one, tend to support the contention by Jacobi (1991) and other reviewers that mentoring research is relatively light with respect to its theoretical bases.

It is important to note that in those articles that described a theoretical perspective there was substantial variability in the degree of importance attached to it. Some studies made a fleeting or cursory reference to a theoretical perspective (Lee & Crammond, 1999; Laband & Lentz, 1999; White, 1990), while others provided quite considerable detail (Covaleski, Dirsmith, Heian & Samuel, 1998; Feldman, Folks & Turnley, 1999; Reiman & Theis-Sprinthall, 1993). The following discussion reports on the theoretical perspectives evident in the business studies. These perspectives are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Theories identified in the Business Studies Sample

Categorisations of Theories	Theories identified In the Business Sample	Mentoring
Economics	Human Capital Theory Leader Member Exchange Theory Mutual Benefits Model Social Exchange theory	Is based on social and economic costs and reciprocity so that mentors and mentees evaluate costs and benefits to determine if the relationship is viable
Developmental Theories	Generativity Developmental Theory (ie Age and stage theory) Career development theory Stages of knowing (women) Sociological Theory	Is a developmental phase that enhances a mentor's and mentee's personal and professional life
Authors' own Theory	Built upon existing theories and generated from data	
Selection process of mentoring	Sponsorship Pipeline Theory Tokenism Attribution Theory	Is not always accessible to particular groups of people (ie women, minority groups, people of different socio economic background)
Theories related to Power	Embedded intergroup relations theory Gender congruency theory of power Five bases of power Foucault's theory of disciplinary techniques and control Model of empowerment Sociology of professions Theory	Is about the exercise of and use of power in relationships and organisations
Leadership/ Management Theory	Contingency Theory Model of decision-making Competing values framework	Is similar to management in that there is no one effective management or mentorship style; effectiveness is contingent upon the situation
Learning Theory	Social learning theory Apprenticeship Model Learning organisation	Enables learning to occur for the mentor and mentee. The mentee learns through observation, socialisation and enculturation
Theories related to Organisational Structures/ Socialisation and Networks	Structural theoretical approach Structuration Social Network Theory Socialisation Informal-integration – diversity valuation	Is a process of formal and/or informal socialisation which can occur within an organisational context or social network
Interpersonal Relationships	Maintenance Communication Post-Confucian Theory	Is a two-way interpersonal relationship based on mutuality and Intersubjectivity

Findings and Discussion: Business Studies

As the broadly defined area of business draws on numerous schools of thought it was anticipated that a corresponding diversity of theory would be identified and discussed in the research studies. To a certain extent this proved to be correct, but there was evidence, in the form of a citation, in 42.4% (or 64 out of a pool of 151) of the articles of an awareness of the seminal work of Kram (1985). In many of these business mentoring articles the authors did not really present a theoretical view regarding mentoring; rather they noted the work of Kram (1985). In doing so they tended to describe Kram's conception of mentoring which sees it as comprising two distinct dimensions - a career and psychosocial dimension, both thought to benefit the mentor and mentee. The career dimension of mentoring focuses on the 'external' career progress attributes such as sponsorship, coaching, protection, visibility and exposure. Kram (1985) contended that these attributes strengthen and support an individual's capacity for career development and advancement. On the other hand, psychosocial development is more inclined to be 'inner oriented' and as a consequence includes counselling, role modelling and friendship. It is argued that these inner-oriented forces help individuals to develop confidence, competence and acceptance.

The other major theoretical or conceptual frameworks utilised in the business database tended to be derived from economics, philosophy, organisational behaviour, psychology and sociology. As seen in Table 1, theories which have been grouped under a key category are those that share a similar orientation to mentoring. For example, human capital theory, leaders membership exchange theory, mutual benefits model and social exchange theory are theories which have been influenced by the discipline of economics. Common to these theories is the view that mentoring is a type of exchange that addresses reciprocal transactions between participants (Lee & Nolan, 1998). In contrast, theories that were categorised under the label of interpersonal relationships saw that mentoring was not so much an exchange as a close personal relationship that fosters harmony and mutuality.

The four most commonly cited individual theories in the business studies were human capital theory, exchange theory, developmental theory and the authors' own theory. Human capital theory is concerned with education and on-the-job training which helps to explain wage and wage differentials amongst workers. A number of studies claimed that mentored individuals are those who experience greater earnings and career success (Laband & Lentz, 1999) as well as a specific form of human capital investment (Johnson & Scandura, 1994). Common to human capital theory and the other theories categorised under economic theory was the notion that mentoring was an exchange which yielded some type of reciprocity for the mentor and mentee.

Several theories fell within the broader categorisation of developmental theories and these included the theory of generativity (following Erikson, 1972), various age and stage theories (following Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson & McKee, 1978), and career development theories (following Hall, 1976). These theories were used to demonstrate that mentoring is an important phase in a person's life that can yield quality relationships and/or career success. A theory pertaining to women's developmental stages of knowing (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger & Tarule, 1986) was also advanced. Mentoring was viewed as an important phase for women to undergo to assist their development.

A number of studies in the sample generated their own theory. All of the studies built upon existing models of mentoring and some of them incorporated data grounded from their research into the new perspective. For example one study (Gibb, 1994) created a conceptual framework to explain diversity in formal mentoring schemes. The framework consisted of three levels. The first level identified a continuum of mentoring that viewed it as being highly structured at one end, and more process oriented or negotiable at the other. The second level was the adoption of a human resource development perspective to define and address relevant mentoring issues. The final level of the model incorporated Burrell and Morgan's (1992) four paradigms underpinning organisational analysis. The culmination was a three-tiered model to assist human resource developers understand mentoring from a practical and theoretical perspective.

Most of the remaining business studies fell within six broad categories that we have identified as theories related to the selection process for mentoring, theories related to power, leadership/management theory, learning theory, theories related to organisational socialisation and networks and theories highlighting interpersonal relationships. Regarding theories related to the selection process, many of these discussed issues facing women and/or minority groups regarding difficulties in accessing mentoring opportunities. For example, lack of sponsorship and tokenism

(following Kanter, 1977) and pipeline theory (following Fullbright, 1985) were discussed as theories which explained why certain people in the organisation are mentored and others are not. Other theories which were used in relation to race/gender and socio-economic status were attribution theory, feminist theory and sociological theory. These theories maintain that some individuals are more likely to be mentored than others because of their attributes (such as gender, race, similarity to the mentor or socio-economic status).

Another important category that seemed to capture the essence of many theories was power. For example, these theories included embedded intergroup relations theory (Thomas, 1999), gender congruency theory of power (Tepper, Brown & Hunt, 1993), French and Raven's (1959) five bases of power (Thibaut & Lowe, 1996), Foucault's (1983) analysis of disciplinary techniques and control (Covaleski et al., 1998) and Cook's (1992) development cube which is a model of empowerment. A sociology of the professions perspective (Dirsmith et al., 1997) was also used to explore the role of structures in establishing approaches to redistributing power among interest groups in organisations. In summary, these theories were concerned with the exercise of power in mentoring.

Theories emanating from leadership and management perspectives which were discussed by studies in the review included Fiedler's (1964) contingency theory of leadership, the Vroom-Yetton (1973) model of decision making (Horgan & Simeon, 1990), and the competing values framework (following Quinn, 1998). These theories were related to mentoring in terms of the practices of leaders or mentors in organisations.

We classified only three theories as falling under the category of learning. These were social learning theory (following Bandura, 1977), an apprenticeship model of mentoring and the learning organisation. The first two are concerned with the role of learning and development through observation and modelling, while the latter focused on the partnerships between mentors and mentees in a learning organisation.

The next category, organisational structure, socialisation and networks include theories of socialisation, structuration (following Giddens, 1979), social network theory and informal integration-diversity valuation. The structural approach focuses on how positions of individuals in a social system provide opportunities for action but also put constraints on behaviour. Informal integration – diversity valuation is concerned with informal socialisation of individuals in organisations, while socialisation theory is more concerned with formal socialisation processes of individuals in organisations. Social network theory maintains that groups of people should have access to social resources and networks. All of these theories suggest that mentoring is an important process of formal and/or informal socialisation that may or may not be readily accessible in organisational contexts.

The final category, interpersonal relationships, embodies two theories which are maintenance communication and post-Confucian theory. The first refers to behaviours and messages partners in a mentoring relationship use to preserve relational stability. Post-Confucian theory is a set of values and ethics that permeate traditional Chinese society. The study from which the theory was identified made the point that Confucian values of relationship centredness (i.e. harmony) are congruent with the values of mentor-protégé relationships.

In summary, the main categories of theories that we classified in the business studies literature included theories taken from economics (such as human capital theory and social exchange theory), developmental theories, authors' own theory, theories relating to who is selected for mentorship, theories related to power, leadership/management theories, learning theory, theories related to organisational structure, socialisation and networks and theories related to interpersonal relationships.

Findings and Discussion: Education Studies

The analysis of the educational database revealed that only 15% of the articles considered made reference to a conceptual or theoretical framework. This is in contrast to the 35% of business studies which articulated a conceptual framework. As in the business studies, the emphasis educational researchers placed on a conceptual or theoretical framework ranged from scant consideration to a reasonable discussion. Another distinction between the education and business studies related to the advancement of Kram's (1985) work. Educational researchers made virtually no mention of the framework advocated by Kram. This raises a number of possibilities, the first being that educational

researchers were unaware of Kram's writing in the area. The other possibility is that educationalists did not consider the work applicable to education. This second possibility is unlikely, however, as the psychosocial and career dimensions of mentoring seem to have substantial significance to many of the studies reported in educational settings.

From the educational studies we reviewed, it was possible to identify seven main categories. These can be found in Table 2.

Table 2: Theories identified in the Education Studies Sample

Categories of Theories	Theories identified in the Education Sample	Mentoring
Developmental Theories	Age and stage Developmental Stage theories for teachers Teacher Concerns Cognitive development theories Social Role Taking Social Interaction Theory Reflection Model Social Capital Theory Theory of possible selves	Is a developmental phase that enhances a mentor's and mentee's personal and professional life
Adult Learning Theories	Adult learning theory Mentoring model Experiential learning theory Critical reflection	Assists learning and growth via reflection about practice
Economic Theory	Social Exchange Theory	Is based on social cost and reciprocity so that mentors and mentees evaluate costs and benefits to determine if the relationship is viable
Learning Theory	Role Model theory Social Learning Theory Apprenticeship Model Constructivist/Socio-cultural theories	Enables learning to occur for the mentor and mentee. The mentee learns through observation, socialisation and enculturation
Coaching/Skill Development Models	Cognitive coaching model Clinical supervision model Skill development model	Is a type of supervisory practice which involves coaching and skill development for the mentee
Leadership Theory	Contingency Theory Change Theory	Occurs when mentors adapt their skills and style to meet the needs of mentees and the situation
Authors' own Theory	Built upon existing theories and generated from data	

As can be seen from Table 2, these categories were developmental theories, adult learning theories, learning theory, coaching skill development models, economic theory, leadership theory and the authors' own theory. When theory was described it tended to focus on development and adult learning. This is not surprising given that educators would see the benefits of mentoring in terms of growth and development for individuals. As highlighted earlier, the business studies drew upon a wide range of theories from a variety of disciplines as diverse as philosophy, sociology and economics. While these studies also saw that mentoring had a developmental role to play, the business studies were more inclined to go beyond the developmental aspects of mentoring to unearth a range of organisational dimensions and dynamics surrounding mentoring arrangements.

An important finding in the education studies surrounded the construct of reflection. Reflection (following Schon, 1983, 1987) was described as an important activity in which professionals (i.e. mentors and mentees) should and do engage to help them come to new understandings of their practice. It was identified as a key element inherent in many of the developmental and learning oriented theories identified and discussed. In contrast, reflection was virtually absent from studies in the business area.

Within the broad category of adult learning theories, we included Brookfield's (1990) theory of adult learning as well as Daloz's (1986) support and challenge model for mentors. In addition we included Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning and Schon's (1983, 1987) theoretical work in the area of reflection since adult learning theories hold the premise that learning is situated in the learners' experience (Clarke, 1993, p. 53). The assumption underpinning theories within this category was that growth and development will occur when certain conditions are evident such as challenge and support (Daloz, 1986), learning principles (Brookfield, 1990) and critical reflection (Schon, 1983, 1987).

A second and important category that emerged from the analysis was developmental theories. Developmental theories were also discussed in the business studies. These studies viewed mentoring as an important process that was needed in a person's development at particular ages and stages. Specific theories that fell within this category in the education studies included developmental stage theories for teachers, teacher concerns, cognitive development theories, social capital theory and theory of possible selves. Like adult development theories, developmental stage theory for teachers and Fuller's (1969) stages of concern model identify certain stages within a teacher's career where a mentor's input and guidance would be relevant. Cognitive development theories are not so much related to age or career but more concerned with the way adults construct and make meanings of experience (Oja, 1989, p.122). An example is Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall's (1983) Teaching/Learning framework designed to promote the development of mentor teachers and in turn mentor learners. Other relevant theories that fell within this broad category include Mead's (1934) social role taking model, Vygotsky's (1978) social interaction theory and Furth's relaxed reflection model (1981). All three maintain that learners require support when encountering new and complex thoughts and actions (Reiman et al., 1995, p.109) and cognitive developmental interactions should enable mentors and mentees to grow and develop. Social capital theory (following Coleman, 1987) sees mentoring as a type of social capital since it develops in the mentee the skills and attitude necessary to succeed in school and adult life. Thus it is critical to human development. The theory of possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986) is concerned with how individuals think about their potential and future. One study in the sample saw the application of the theory in terms of formal mentoring programs for economically disadvantaged youth.

Included under the umbrella of learning theory were social learning theory, role model theory, apprenticeship model and constructivist/socio-cultural theories. The first three of these theories are concerned with observing another's behaviour in order to learn from another. For example, social learning theory (following Bandura, 1977) maintains that human beings tend to emulate the behaviour they see in others whom they respect and admire. Both social learning theory and an apprenticeship model were identified as theories underpinning the business studies. Constructivist/socio-cultural theories were also categorised under learning theory since these theories are concerned with understanding how people learn. Such perspectives maintain that learning is a process of active construction as well as a process of enculturation (Cobb 1994 in Frykholm, 1998).

Related to both development and learning theories was coaching/skill development. Three similar models were put forward. The first study utilised a cognitive coaching model (following Costa & Garmston, 1994), the second a clinical supervision model (Cogan, 1973) and the third, a training model for skill development (Joyce & Showers, 1980). The first two models have in common a similar methodology which involves the mentor and mentee going through an evaluation cycle that includes a preconference meeting, observations and a post conference. The third model (Joyce & Showers, 1980) is also concerned with discussions between the mentor and mentee in regard to observations, reflections and analysis of practice.

Two theories, social exchange theory and contingency theory, were found in both the business studies and education studies. Whereas theories influenced by economic theory were cited to a greater extent in the business studies, only social exchange theory was noted in the education studies. As indicated before, social exchange theory was used to explain the costs and benefits incurred by mentors and mentees in the context of a mentoring relationship. Contingency theory in both studies was translated to mentoring to mean there is no formula for mentors to follow when ensuring effective mentoring. Change theory (following Havelock, 1973), like contingency theory, maintains that mentors are those individuals who will adapt their approach to the particular circumstance of their pairing with their new mentee. Mentors are deemed 'change agents' who play an important role in helping mentee's learning and develop.

As in the business studies literature, a small number of studies in education adapted existing models to create their own model of mentoring. For example, one study conceptualised mentoring as a shared adventure whose main thrust was collaborative reflection. Another built on from Daloz's (1986) mentoring model that outlines optimal combinations of challenge and support in which learning and development are said to occur. These authors (Burgess & Butcher, 1999) created a model consisting of interrelated dimensions such as student teachers (mentees), mentors, the school itself, and the open learning element of the course. Linking all of these dimensions was their notion of the 'discourse of challenge'.

In summary, the main categorisations of theories used in the education studies included developmental theories, adult learning theories, social exchange theory, learning theories, leadership theories, coaching/skill development models and authors' own model. Our study confirms concerns raised by Healy and Welchart (1990), Jacobi (1991) and Gibb (1999) that mentoring studies frequently do not locate mentoring within a wider theoretical framework. This was particularly the case in the education studies with only 15% of studies giving recognition to theories. The studies drawn from the business area fared better with 35% identifying and discussing theoretical constructs or models. The theories which emanated from the business studies database were more wide ranging and drew upon an eclectic discipline base; such breadth and depth were not evident in the education studies where theories relating to learning or development predominated. Theories common to both the education and business studies sample were developmental theories, social exchange theory, social learning theory, an apprenticeship model and contingency theory. Furthermore, researchers from education and business also presented their own models.

TOWARDS A MODEL OF MENTORING: CLOSING THE GAP BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE

In the final part of this paper we present a model of mentoring which synthesises our understandings of the theoretical literature and incorporates findings from our earlier work on the outcomes of mentoring. Our model (see Figure 1) attempts to 'close the divide' between the theory and practice of mentoring because it draws upon both theoretical constructs and findings from practice. As can be seen from Figure 1, the model consists of three main elements - initiation, processes and outcomes. These are each described in turn.

Initiation

Initiation refers to the components of the model that can act as a barrier to the establishment of a mentoring relationship as well as have an impact upon the maintenance of a relationship. Pipeline theory, attribution theory and sponsorship were put forward to explain the difficulties of accessing mentors for women and members of minority groups. Selection issues tend to be more salient to informal mentoring relationships than formal mentoring relationships. This is because informal mentoring arrangements are spontaneous and occur at the discretion of the mentor. On the other hand, formal mentoring arrangements stem from programs developed and are subsequently managed by organisational managers (Chao, Waltz & Gardner, 1992; Douglas, 1997). Only within the last three decades have formal mentoring programs become a part of human resource management strategies. Such programs were and continue to be used as a way of breaking down barriers so that more people are able to access mentoring.

Some of the theoretical and empirical literature has also reported that the aforementioned barriers can impact upon the maintenance of mentoring relationships. For example, several studies within the business database reported that misunderstandings or incompatibility associated with gender or race hampered the success of the mentoring relationship. Gender problems were more likely to arise from the pairing of female mentees with male mentors, while racial problems tended to be encountered by black mentee and white mentor pairs (Hansford et al., 2001b).

Process

Fundamentally mentoring is a process that exists within the dynamics of a professional and/or interpersonal relationship between a mentor and a mentee. The relationship can vary in its intensity and dynamics. Just as gender, race and socio-economic status can act as barriers affecting the dynamics of the relationship between the two parties, so too can particular characteristics such as personality of the

mentor and/or mentee facilitate or inhibit the ongoing relationship. For example, personality mismatch, ideological differences or expertise differences were found to cause problems in the mentoring relationship between mentors and mentees in the education studies (Hansford et al., 2001a). Motivation on the part of both players as well as trust are also seen as important elements in the maintenance of the relationship (Kram, 1985).

The two main functions of mentoring according to Kram (1985) are career development (or development to enhance one's professional competencies) and psychosocial functions. These two functions are believed to benefit both the mentor and the mentee in particular ways. We would also propose that in addition to these two overarching functions of mentoring, learning is central to mentoring, is usually experienced by both parties and is often a consequence of the interchange.

Clearly, the mentor and the mentee are the two main players in the process. However, while the relationship is said to be two-way, with both parties potentially benefiting from the interchange, the mentor, by definition, is the person who tends to be more experienced and knowledgeable than the mentee. Furthermore, due to his/her position, the mentor tends to have greater access to resources (such as knowledge and power in the organisation) which the mentor decides or does not decide to share with the mentee. Because of their experience and access to resources, mentors in most cases 'take the lead' and shape the subsequent interactions with the mentee.

No mentoring relationship exists within a vacuum; hence we have shown in the diagram that mentoring is situated within a wider organisational, social and political context. A number of the theories we reviewed explained that this wider context can provide opportunities for the fostering of mentoring relationships or alternatively put constraints upon such relationships. Even if formal mentoring programs are part of the organisation's policy, there is no guarantee that mentoring will be automatically beneficial for all parties concerned. The success of mentoring programs is dependent upon a range of factors (Douglas, 1997) and some of these are identified later in the discussion.

Another element of process relates to the theoretical underpinnings of mentoring. As our paper has shown, 35% and 15% of the business and education studies discussed revealed at least one or more theories. In other words, the majority of studies did not allude to any particular theoretical stances. It was evident that these studies had an idea of what mentoring was and how it was to be used. It could be argued that these studies had an 'implicit' theory of mentoring. Of the studies which did discuss theories, there was considerable diversity particularly within the business studies, although there was some commonality across the two sets of studies in the types of theories used. Because of this diversity we felt it was not appropriate to identify one dominant theory; rather we would maintain that underpinning the mentoring relationship is an explicit or implicit conceptualisation of mentoring which defines it and shapes its nature, purpose and outcomes.

Outcomes

The final part of our model features outcomes. Based on our previous studies of 151 business mentoring and 159 educational mentoring articles (Hansford et al., 2001a, 2001b) we identified positive outcomes and problems associated with mentoring for the mentor, mentee and the organisation. Figure 1 illustrates the five most frequently cited outcomes that emerged from these two meta-analyses. Under Problems for the Organisation in education and business, we have included only two findings since our analysis of the studies revealed a very limited discussion of this area (8.4% of education studies and 8.8% of business studies). In fact, a fairly small percentage of the articles across the two databases discussed at least one positive outcome of mentoring for the organisation (16.4% and 30.5% for education and business respectively). As indicated by the arrows in the model, the process of mentoring can have particular types of outcomes (some positive and some negative) for the mentor and mentee as well as the organisation.

Just as there were several theories common to both the education and business studies, we noted some similar outcomes in our analysis across the two databases. In the construction of this model, however, we decided against generalising the outcomes since it was evident that a number of these were peculiar to either education or business. These outcomes are discussed as follows.

Mentors

Within the business studies database, networking, career satisfaction, improved skills, increased pride and assistance were the most frequently cited benefits for mentors. Positive outcomes for mentors in the education studies were collegiality/networking, reflection, professional development, personal satisfaction and interpersonal skill development. Our meta-analysis showed that mentors too benefit in particular ways from the mentoring relationship.

Two problems common to mentors in the business and education studies were lack of time and lack of training. Lack of time was the most frequently cited problem for mentors. Other problems identified in the business studies included negative mentee attitude, jealousy and pressure. For mentors in the education studies, other problems were professional expertise/personality mismatch, the extra burden associated with mentoring and frustration with the mentee.

Mentee

An outcome that was common in both of the studies for mentees was counselling - one of the psychosocial functions provided by mentoring (Kram, 1985, p.23). Positive outcomes for the mentee in the business studies included career satisfaction, coaching ideas, challenging assignments, and access to resources. Two of these, coaching and challenging assignments, come under the umbrella of Kram's (1985, p.23) career related functions of mentoring. In contrast, positive outcomes for mentees in educational settings included help with teaching strategies, sharing ideas, feedback/positive reinforcement, and increased self confidence.

Problems associated with mentoring for mentees in the business studies included gender/race problems, cloning, untrained or ineffective mentors, negative attitude of others, and a competitive mentor. The problems identified by mentees in the other database included lack of mentor time, professional expertise/personality mismatch, a mentor who is critical, difficulty in meeting with the mentor, and lack of mentor support. Mentees in the business studies were more inclined to identify problems with mentoring in terms of gender or race, whereas mentees in the education studies nominated a mismatch in personality or ideology. The result of these sorts of problems is incompatibility.

Organisation

In regard to outcomes for the organisation, there was little similarity between the business and the education mentoring studies. Given that there are fundamental differences in purpose between business and educational contexts, this finding was not unexpected. Positive outcomes for the organisation in business settings included improved productivity, retention of staff, promotion of loyalty, an improved workplace, and that mentoring facilitates change. In contrast, positive outcomes for educational settings included improved education of students, support for the school, contribution of mentoring to the good of the profession, less work for staff and retention of teachers. Retention of staff was the only benefit common to the two disciplines/fields. Problems noted were high staff turnover and gender bias in the business studies and costs and lack of partnerships in the education studies. As stated previously, negative outcomes for the organisation in both sets of studies were minimal.

CONCLUSION

Our undertaking in this paper was quite ambitious. We began by reporting on the categorisations of theories underpinning a small percentage of empirical research (i.e. 15% and 35% of education and business studies respectively in a sample of over 300 pieces of literature) in the area of mentoring. We made the assumption that the remaining studies that did not explicitly identify and discuss theoretical perspectives had some conception or idea regarding the meaning and purpose of mentoring. It seems that researchers do have an implicit theory or conceptualisation of mentoring. In the next part of the paper we tried to amalgamate this theoretical literature with findings on the outcomes of mentoring for mentors, mentees and the organisation from our earlier meta-analyses in order to devise a model of mentoring. As such we have attempted to close the divide between the theory and practice of mentoring.

It seems that designing and implementing a mentoring scheme remains a significant challenge for human resource managers. Although our model indicated that mentoring can have negative effects on mentors, mentees and the organisation, we would argue that these problems can be minimised by

careful planning and implementation. The final part of the paper discusses five practical challenges that confront human resource managers as they attempt to implement effective mentoring programs.

Firstly, the challenge is to ensure that the mentoring program is fully supported by top managers in the organisation (Douglas, 1997). This challenge is often cited as an effective characteristic of mentoring programs in the research. Strong support from senior management would enable the program to be visible and to operate within a supportive organisational culture.

Secondly, the challenge is to ensure that the aims, roles, rules and expectations be communicated to relevant personnel such as mentors, mentees and senior management as well as others involved in the program (Douglas, 1997). Tovey (1998) goes as far as identifying a list of rules that would help to minimise misunderstandings that may occur between a mentor's and mentee's expectations.

Thirdly, a challenge is to provide suitable training of mentors. It cannot be assumed that mentors will automatically have the skills and knowledge required to perform the mentoring functions. As our outcomes indicated, mentees identified mentor's lack of expertise and training as being problematic.

Fourthly, an important challenge is the selection of participants and possible matching of mentors and mentees. Unsuccessful matches can be worse than no mentoring at all (MacCallum & Baltman, 1999). Tovey (1998) suggests that mentors and mentees should choose each other.

Finally, and tied to goals of the program, the challenge for human resource managers is to establish monitoring and evaluating mechanisms in the program. Kram and Bragar (1991), for example, encourage the utilisation of ongoing monitoring and assessing through use of procedures such as interview, focus groups and surveys.

In short, the successful implementation and management of mentoring programs requires a mixture of many important ingredients and the aforementioned discussion has identified some of these. From our studies to date we would argue that human resource managers ought to view mentoring as an important learning tool. We believe that sensitive human resource leadership will be necessary to minimise its potentially negative effects.

REFERENCES

- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Belenky, M.F., Clinchy, B.M., Goldberger, N.R., & Tarule, J.M. (1986). *Women's Way of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice and Mind*. New York: Basic Books.
- Brookfield, S. (1990). *Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Burgess, J., & Butcher, J. (1999). To challenge or not to challenge: The mentor's dilemma. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, 6(3), 31-47.
- Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1992). *Sociological Paradigms and Organizational Analysis*. Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Chao, G.T., Walz, P.M., & Gardner, P.D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrasts with nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology*, 45, Autumn, 619-636.
- Clarke, M.C. (1993). Transformational learning. In *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 57, Spring, 47-56.
- Cogan, M.L. (1973). *Clinical Supervision*. Boston, Mass: Houghton Mifflin.
- Coleman, J. (1987). Families and schools. *Educational Researcher*, 16(6), 32-38.
- Cook, J.T. (1992). The development cube. Unpublished lecture notes. Johannesburg: Graduate school of Business Administration, University of Witwatersand.
- Costa, A.L., & Garmston, R.J. (1994). *Cognitive Coaching: A Foundation for Renaissance Schools*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers.
- Covaleski, M.A., Dirsmith, M.W., Heian, J.B., & Samuel, S. (1998). The calculated and the avowed: Techniques of discipline and struggle over identity in Big Six public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43(2), 293-327.
- Daloz, L. (1986). *Effective Teaching and Mentoring*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Dirsmith, M.W., Heian, J.B., & Covaleski, M.A. (1997). Structure and agency in an institutionalised setting: The application and social transformation of control in the big six. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 22(1), 1-27.
- Douglas, C.A., (1997). *Formal Mentoring Programs in Organizations: An Annotated Bibliography*. Greensboro: Centre for Creative Leadership.
- Ehrich, L.C., & Hansford, B.C. (1999). Mentoring: Pros and cons for HRM. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 37(3), 92-107.
- Ehrich, L.C., Tennent, L., & Hansford, B. (2000). Mentoring in Context. Paper given at the 8th Annual International Conference on Post-compulsory education and training, *Learning together, Working together: Building Communities for the 21st Century*, Conference Proceedings, 2, Surfers Paradise, Gold Coast, 4-6 December.
- Erickson, E. (1972). *Childhood and Society*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Feldman, D.F., Folks, W.R., & Turnley, W.H. (1999). Mentor-protégé diversity and its impact on international internship experiences. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 20, 5970611.

- Fiedler, F. (1964). A contingency model of leadership effectiveness. In L. Berkowitz (ed) *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Academic Press.
- Foucault, M. (1983). Afterword: The subject and power. In H.L. Dreyfus & P. Rabinow (eds) *Michel Foucault: Beyond Structuralism and Hermeneutics*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press pp. 208-226.
- French, J.R.P., & Raven, B.H. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (eds) *Group dynamics*. New York: Harper and Row pp. 150-167.
- Frykholm, J.A. (1998). Beyond supervision: Learning to teach mathematics in community. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14(3), 305-322.
- Fullbright, K. (1985). The myth of the double advantage: Black female managers. *Review of the Black Political Economy*, 14(2-3), Fall/Winter 1985-1986, 33-45.
- Fuller, F. (1969). Concerns of teachers: A developmental conceptualisation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 6(2), 207-226.
- Furth, H. (1981). *Piaget and Knowledge*. Chicago, Ill: University of Chicago Press.
- Gibb, S. (1999). The usefulness of theory: A case study in evaluating formal mentoring schemes. *Human Relations*, 52(8), 1055-1075.
- Giddens, A. (1979). *Central Problems in Social Theory*. London: Macmillan.
- Glass, G.V. (1977). Integrating findings: The meta-analysis of research. *Review of Research in Education*, 5, 351-379.
- Hall, D.T. (1976). *Careers in Organizations*. Glenview, Ill: Foresman & Co.
- Hansford, B.C., Tennent, L., & Ehrich, L.C. (2000). Mentoring in educational contexts. Paper given at Education: The Global Challenge, 9-12 September 2000, Hotel Grand Chancellor, Hobart, Australia.
- Hansford, B.C., Ehrich, L.C., & Tennent, L. (in press) Does mentoring deserve another look? In R. Wiesner & B. Millet (eds) *Human Resource Management*. Australia: Jacaranda Wiley.
- Hansford, B.C., Tennent, L., & Ehrich, L.C. (2001a). Educational mentoring: Is it worth the effort? Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Hansford, B.C., Tennent, L., & Ehrich, L.C. (2001b). Business mentoring: Help or hindrance? Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Havelock, R.G. (1973). *The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.
- Healy, C.C., & Welch, A.J. (1990). Mentoring relations: A definition to advance research and practice. *Educational Researcher*, 19(9), 17-21.
- Horgan, D.D., & Simeon, R.J. (1990). Mentoring and participation: An application of the Vroom-Yetton model. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 5(1), Fall, 63-84.
- Jacobi, M. (1991). Mentoring and undergraduate academic success: A literature review. *Review of Educational Research*, 61(4), 505-32.
- Johnson, N.B., & Scandura, T.A. (1994). The effects of mentorship and sec-role style on male-female earnings. *Industrial Relations*, 33(2), 263-274.
- Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1980). The coaching of teaching. *Educational Leadership*, 40(1), 4-10.
- Kanter, R. (1977). *Men and Women of the Corporation*. New York: Basic Books.

- Kolb, D.A.(1984). *Experiential Learning: Experiences as the Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kram, K.E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview, Ill: Scott Foresman.
- Kram, K.E. and Bragar, M.C. (1991). Development through mentoring: A strategic approach. In D. Montross and C. Shinkman (eds) *Career Development: Theory and Practice*. Springfield, Il: Charles C. Thomas.
- Laband, D.L., & Lentz, B.F. (1999). The impact of having a mentor on earnings and promotion: Evidence from a panel study of lawyers. *Applied Economics Letters*, 6, 785-787.
- Lee, J., & Crammond, B. (1999). The positive effects of mentoring economically disadvantaged students. *ASCA: Professional School Counseling*, 2(3),172-178.
- Lee, J.H., & Nolan, R.E. (1998). The relationship between mentoring and the career advancement of women administrators in cooperative extension. *Journal of career development*, 25(1), 3-13.
- Levinson, D.J., Darrow, C.N., Klein, E.B., Levinson, M.H., & McKee, B. (1978). *The Seasons of a Man's Life*. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Macallum, J., & Baltiman, S. (1999). Mentoring: An old idea that works - or does it? Second Regional Conference on Tutoring and Mentoring. Perth, September 30 - October 2 1999.
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist*, 41(9), 954-969.
- Mead, G.H. (1934). *Mind, Self and Society*. Chicago, Ill: University of Chicago Press.
- Oja, S.N. (1989). Teacher: Ages and stages of adult development. In M.L. Holly & C.S. McLaughlin (eds) *Perspectives on Teacher Development*. Barcombe: The Falmer Press, pp. 119-154.
- Quinn, L. (1998). The importance of structure in providing uniform quality in mentoring/induction programs. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, 2(1), 5-11.
- Reiman, A.J., & Thies-Sprinthall, L. (1993). Promoting the development of mentor teachers: Theory and research programs using guided reflection. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 26(3), 183-185.
- Reiman, A.J., Bostick, D., Lassiter, J., & Cooper, J. (1995). Counselor- and teacher-led support groups for beginning teachers: A cognitive developmental perspective. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, 30(2), 105-117.
- Schon, D.A. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.
- Schon, D.A. (1987). *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Senge, P. (1990). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. New York: Doubleday.
- Sprinthall, N.A., & Thies-Sprinthall, L. (1983). The need for theoretical frameworks in educating teachers: A cognitive-developmental perspective. In K. Howey & W. Gardner (eds) *Education of Teachers: A Look Ahead*. New York: Longman pp.74-97.
- Tepper, B.J., Brown, S.J., and Hunt, M.D. (1993). Strengths of subordinates' upward influence tactics and gender congruency effects. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 23(22), 1903-1919.
- Thibaux, H.F., & Lowe, R.H. (1996). Convergence of leader-member exchange and mentoring. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, 11(1), 97-115.

Thomas, D.A. (1999). Beyond the simple demography - power hypothesis: How blacks in power influence white-mentor-black-protégé developmental relationships. In A.J. Murrell, F.J. Crosby & R.J. Ely (eds) *Mentoring Dilemmas: Developmental Relationships within Multicultural Organizations*. Mahway, New Jersey: London pp. 157-170.

Tovey, M.D. (1998). *Mentoring in the Workplace: A Guide for Mentors and Managers*. Erskineville, NSW: Prentice Hall.

Vroom, V., & Yetton, P. (1973). *Leadership and Decision making*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

White, Y.S. (1990). Understanding the black woman manager's interaction with the corporate culture. *The Western Journal of Black Studies*, 14(3), 182-186.

